

UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

CHROMATIC EQUIVALENCE CLASSES AND CHROMATIC DEFINING NUMBERS OF CERTAIN GRAPHS

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# CHROMATIC EQUIVALENCE CLASSES AND CHROMATIC DEFINING NUMBERS OF CERTAIN GRAPHS 

## By

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for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the
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# يسه الهن اللهشهو الله بيه 

Specially Dedicated to My Husband

A bstract of thesis presented to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

# CHROMATIC EQUIVALENCE CLASSES AND CHROMATIC DEFINING NUMBERS OF CERTAIN GRAPHS 

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There are two parts in this dissertation: the chromatic equivalence classes and the chromatic defining numbers of graphs.

In the first part the chromaticity of the family of generalized polygon trees with intercourse number two, denoted by $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$, is studied. It is known that $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \geq r+3$. We consider $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ when $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq r+2$. The necessary and sufficient conditions for $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ with $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq r+2$ to be a chromatic equivalence class are given. Thus, the chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is completely characterized.

In the second part the defining numbers of regular graphs are studied. Let $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ be the smallest value of defining numbers of all $r$-regular graphs of order $n$ and the chromatic number equals to $k$. It is proved that for a given integer $k$ and each $r \geq 2(k-1)$ and $n \geq 2 k, d(n, r, \chi=k)=k-1$. Next, a new lower bound for the defining numbers of $r$-regular $k$-chromatic graphs with $k<r<2(k-1)$ is found. Finally, the value of $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ when $k<r<2(k-1)$ for certain values of $n$ and $r$ is determined.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk ijazah Doktor Falsafah.

## KELAS KESETARAAN KROMATIK DAN NOMBOR PENTAKRIF KROMATIK BAGI GRAF TERTENTU

Oleh<br>BEHNAZ OMOOMI<br>Mac 2001

## Pengerusi: Profesor Madya Peng Yee Hock, Ph.D.

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Dissertasi ini ada dua bahagian: kelas kesetaraan kromatik dan nombor pentakrif kromatik bagi graf.

Dalam bahagian pertama, kekromatikan famili pokok poligon teritlak dengan nombor hubungan bersamaan dua, diberi lambang $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ dikaji. Famili $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ diketahui merupakan suatu kelas kesetaraan kromatik jika $\min \{a, b$, $c, d\} \geq r+3$. Kita menyelidiki kekromatikan $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ dengan $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq$ $r+2$. Syarat perlu, dan cukup bagi $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ dengan $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq r+$ 2 menjadi kelas kesetaraan kromatik ditemui. Dengan yang demikian, kekromatikan $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ terciri secara lengkap.

Dalam bahagian kedua, nombor pentakrif bagi graf sekata dikaji. Misalkan $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ nilai terkecil nombor pentakrif bagi semua graf $r$-sekata berperingkat $n$ dengan nombor kromatik bersamaan $k$. Bagi sebarang integer $k$ dan setiap $r \geq 2(k-1)$ dan $n \geq 2 k$, kita buktikan $d(n, r, \chi=k)=k-1$. Seterusnya, suatu batas bawah baru bagi nombor pentakrif graf $r$-sekata $k$-kromatik dengan $k<r<2(k-1)$ telah ditemui. Akhirnya, nilai $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ apabila $k<r<2(k-1)$ bagi parameter tertentu juga telah diperolehi.

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## CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

In this chapter we refer to some definitions and terminology which will be used throughout this thesis. Since the outline of each chapter is given at the beginning of the chapters, we shall give only a brief outline of the thesis in Section 1.2.

### 1.1 Preliminaries, Definitions, and Notations

Throughout this thesis, a graph $G$ is a finite, nonempty vertex set $V(G)$ together with an edge set $E(G)$, where each edge in $E(G)$ is an unordered pair of vertices. We write $u v$ for the edge $\{u, v\}$. If $u v \in E(G)$, then $u$ and $v$ are adjacent. We write $u \leftrightarrow v$ to mean " $u$ is adjacent to $v$ ". The vertices contained in an edge are its endpoints. If vertex $v$ belongs to edge $e$, then $v$ and $e$ are incident. The repeated edges or edges with both endpoints the same are called multiple edges and loops, respectively. Here we consider the graphs without multiple edges and loops. The number $|V(G)|$ and $|E(G)|$ are called the order and the size of $G$, respectively. The complement of a graph $G$, written $\bar{G}$, is a graph having the same vertex set as $G$, such that $u, v$ are adjacent in $\bar{G}$ if and only if $u, v$ are not adjacent in $G$.

A subgraph of a graph $G$ is a graph $H$ such that $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$; we write this as $H \subseteq G$. An induced subgraph of $G$ is a subgraph $H$ such that every edge of $G$ contained in $V(H)$ belongs to $E(H)$. If $H$ is an induced subgraph of $G$
with vertex set $S$, then we write $H=\langle S\rangle$. Similarly, if $F$ is a nonempty subset of $E(G)$, then the subgraph $\langle F\rangle$ induced by $F$ is the graph whose vertex set consist of those vertices of $G$ incident with at least one edge of $F$ and whose edge set is $F$. A subgraph $H$ of a graph $G$ is called a spanning subgraph if $V(G)=V(H)$.

The degree of a vertex $v$ in graph $G$, written $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)$ or $\operatorname{deg}(v)$, is the number of edges containing $v$. The maximum degree is $\Delta(G)$; the minimum degree is $\delta(G)$. An isolated vertex has degree 0 . A graph $G$ is regular of degree $r$ if for each vertex $v$ of $G, \operatorname{deg}(v)=r$; such graphs are also called $r$-regular graphs. The neighborhood of $v$, written $N_{G}(v)$ or $N(v)$, is $\{x \in V(G) \mid x \leftrightarrow v\}$.

An independent set in a graph $G$ is a vertex subset $S \subseteq V(G)$, such that the induced subgraph $\langle S\rangle$ has no edges. A graph is bipartite if its vertex set can be partitioned into two independent sets. A graph is $k$-partite if $V(G)$ can be partitioned into $k$ independent sets. The independent sets in a specified partition are partite sets.

A complete graph is a graph in which every pair of vertices forms an edge. We denote a complete graph of order $n$ by $K_{n}$. The complement $\bar{K}_{n}$ of the complete graph $K_{n}$ has $n$ vertices and no edges and is referred to as the empty graph of order $n$. A complete bipartite graph is a bipartite graph in which the edge set consists of all pairs having a vertex from each of the two independent sets in the vertex partition.

A path of length $n$ in a graph, denoted by $P_{n}$, is an ordered list of distinct vertices $v_{0}, \cdots, v_{n}$ such that $v_{i-1} v_{i}$ is an edge for all $1 \leq i \leq n$. Similarly, a cycle of length $n$ in a graph, denoted by $C_{n}$, is an ordered list of distinct vertices $v_{1}, \cdots, v_{n}$ such that $v_{i-1} v_{i}, 2 \leq i \leq n$, and also $v_{n} v_{1}$ are edges. The girth of a graph $G$, denoted by $g(G)$, is the length of a shortest cycle in $G$. The first and last vertices of a path are its endpoints; and the rest are interior vertices. A
$(u, v)$-path is a path with endpoints $u$ and $v$. A path in graph $G$ is called a simple path if the degree of each interior vertex is two in $G$. A graph $G$ is connected if it has a $(u, v)$-path for each pair $u, v \in V(G)$.

A graph $G_{1}$ is isomorphic to a graph $G_{2}$, written $G_{1} \cong G_{2}$, if there exists a one-to-one mapping $\phi$, called an isomorphism, from $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ onto $V\left(G_{2}\right)$ such that $u v \in E\left(G_{1}\right)$ if and only if $\phi(u) \phi(v) \in E\left(G_{2}\right)$.

The union of graphs $G$ and $H$, written $G \cup H$, has vertex set $V(G) \cup V(H)$ and edge set $E(G) \cup E(H)$. To specify the disjoint union with $V(G) \cap V(H)=\emptyset$, we write $G+H$. The join of $G$ and $H$, written $G \vee H$, is obtained from $G+H$ by adding the edges $\{x y \mid x \in V(G), y \in V(H)\}$. If $X$ is an nonempty subset of $E(G)$, then $G-X$ denotes the graph obtained from $G$ by removing the edges in $X$.

Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be graphs containing subgraphs $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$, respectively, such that $Q_{1}$ and $Q_{2}$ are isomorphic to some $Q$. Then a $Q$-gluing of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is a graph obtained from the union of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ by identifying $Q_{1}$ with $Q_{2}$. When $Q=K_{1}$ or $Q=K_{2}$, the $Q$-gluing of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is called vertex-gluing and edge-gluing, respectively.

A $\lambda$-colouring of a graph $G$ is an assignment

$$
\begin{aligned}
c: \quad V(G) & \longrightarrow\{1, \cdots, \lambda\} \\
v & \longmapsto c(v)
\end{aligned}
$$

such that if $u \leftrightarrow v$, then $c(u) \neq c(v)$. A graph $G$ is $\lambda$-colourable if it has a $\lambda$-colouring. The chromatic number, $\chi(G)$, is the minimum $\lambda$ such that $G$ is $\lambda$ colourable. In a given graph $G$, a set of vertices $S$ with an assignment of colours is said to be a defining set (with respect to vertex colouring) for $G$ if there exists a unique extension of the colours of $S$ to a $\chi(G)$-colouring of the vertices of $G$.

A defining set with minimum cardinality is called a smallest defining set (of vertex colouring) and its cardinality is the defining number, denoted by $d(G, \chi)$.

The vertices having a given colour in a $\lambda$-colouring must form an independent set. Hence $G$ is $\lambda$-colourable if and only if $G$ is $\lambda$-partite. Two $\lambda$-colourings, $c_{1}$ and $c_{2}$ of $G$ are different if and only if $c_{1}(v) \neq c_{2}(v)$ for some $v \in V(G)$. The number of distinct $\lambda$-colourings of $G$ is denoted by $P(G, \lambda)$ or $P(G)$ if there is no danger of confusion. For any graph $G, P(G, \lambda)$ is in fact a polynomial in $\lambda$, called the chromatic polynomial of $G$.

Two graphs $G$ and $H$ are chromatically equivalent denoted by $G \sim H$, if $P(G, \lambda)=$ $P(H, \lambda)$. A graph $G$ is chromatically unique if $G \cong H$ for any graph $H$ such that $H \sim G$. Trivially, the relation ' $\sim$ ' is an equivalence relation on the class of graphs. We shall denote by $\langle G\rangle$ the chromatic equivalence class determined by $G$ under ' $\sim$ '; indeed, $\langle G\rangle$ is the set of all graphs having the same chromatic polynomial $P(G, \chi)$. Thus a graph $G$ is chromatically unique if and only if $\langle G\rangle=\{G\}$ (up to isomorphism). In other words, a set of graphs $\mathcal{S}$ is a chromatic equivalence class if ( $i$ ) any two graphs in $\mathcal{S}$ are chromatically equivalent and (ii) for any graph $H$ with $H \sim G$, where $G \in \mathcal{S}$, we have $H \in \mathcal{S}$. A property of a graph or a quantity associated with a graph is called $\chi$-invariant if it is preserved under the equivalence relation. To study the chromaticity of a class $\mathcal{S}$ of graphs means to study the problem of determining the chromatic equivalence classes of graphs in $\mathcal{S}$.

A generalized polygon tree is a graph defined recursively as follows. Each cycle $C_{p}$, $p \geq 3$, is a generalized polygon tree. If $H$ is a generalized polygon tree containing a simple path $P_{k}, k \geq 1$, as a subgraph, then every $P_{k}$-gluing of $H$ and $C_{r}$, where $k \leq r$ is also a generalized polygon tree. Every generalized polygon tree is a graph obtained in this manner within a finite number of steps.

Consider the generalized polygon tree $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$ shown in Figure 1.1. The integers $a, b, c, d, s$, and $t$ represent the lengths of respective paths between the vertices of degree three, where $s \geq 0$ and $t \geq 0$. Let $r=s+t$. We now form a family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ of the graphs $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$ where the values of $a, b, c, d$ and $r$ are fixed but the values of $s$ and $t$ vary; that is

$$
\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)=\left\{G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d) \mid r=s+t, s \geq 0, t \geq 0\right\}
$$



Figure 1.1: $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$.

For example,

$$
\mathcal{C}_{5}(2,5 ; 3,6)=\left\{G_{5}^{0}(2,5 ; 3,6), G_{4}^{1}(2,5 ; 3,6), G_{3}^{2}(2,5 ; 3,6)\right\}
$$

and

$$
\mathcal{C}_{1}(2,5 ; 3,6)=\left\{G_{1}^{0}(2,5 ; 3,6)\right\} .
$$

In general, there are exactly $\left\lfloor\frac{r}{2}\right\rfloor+1$ non-isomorphic graphs in the family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$.

The concept of the chromatic polynomial of graphs was first introduced by G.D. Brikhoff [4] in 1912 as a possible means to solve the four-colour problem. For more information about the chromatic polynomial the reader may refer to [35], [37], and [38]. The concept of chromatic uniqueness of graphs was first introduced by Chao and Whitehead [6] in 1978. For expository papers giving a survey on most of the works done on chromatically unique graphs and chromatic equivalence classes, the reader is referred to Koh and Teo in [20] and [21].

### 1.2 Outline of Chapters

There are two parts in this dissertation: The first part, consisting of Chapters 2 and 3 , is about chromatic equivalence classes, and the second part, consisting of Chapters 4,5 , and 6 , is about the defining numbers of graphs.

Suppose that $H$ is a graph such that $P(H)=P\left(G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)\right)$. Then we know that $H$ is also a generalized polygon tree with intercourse number two (see Theorem 2.2). Thus, $H=G_{t^{\prime}}^{s^{\prime}}\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime} ; c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ where $r^{\prime}=s^{\prime}+t^{\prime}$. The question now is whether or not the graph $G_{t^{\prime}}^{s^{\prime}}\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime} ; c^{\prime}, d^{\prime}\right)$ is in the family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$. In other words, is $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)=\left\langle G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)\right\rangle$ ? Moreover, what is the necessary and sufficient condition for $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ to be a chromatic equivalence class?

In Chapter 2, we first present a brief survey of known results on $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$. Then, we consider $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $r=1$. It is clear that for $r=1$, the family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ contains only one graph $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$. Thus, the family $\mathcal{C}_{1}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if and only if $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatically unique graph. We shall discuss the chromatic uniqueness of $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$. In [33] it is proved that $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatically unique graph if $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \geq 4$. Also, the chromaticity of $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=1$ is characterized in [44]. We consider the cases $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=2$ and $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=3$ in Sections 2.3 and 2.4 , respectively, and give a necessary and sufficient condition for $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ to be a chromatically unique graph.

In Chapter 3, we study the chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $r \geq 2$. Peng et al. [34] proved that $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \geq r+3$. The chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=1$ is characterized in [44]. We consider the case $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=r+2$ in Section 3.3 and give a characterization theorem for $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ to be a chromatic equivalence class when $r \geq 2$ and
$\min \{a, b, c, d\}=r+2$. This theorem implies that the conjecture proposed in [34] is not true for $r \geq 2$. In Sections 3.4, we consider $2 \leq \min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq r+1$ and give a necessary and sufficient condition for $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ to be a chromatic equivalence class. Thus, Problem 2 in [21] is completely solved.

Our proofs, roughly, are by comparing polynomials and are lengthy. Apparently, we do not have better methods. Perhaps, because of the nature of the problem, it is not easy to find a shorter proof; for instance, the proof of Theorem 2.12 on page 228 in [17] required more than one hundred pages.

In Chapter 4, we present a review of the concept of defining set in different areas such as latin squares, block designs and graph theory. We also state some related known results which are used in Chapters 5 and 6.

Mahmoodian and Mendelsohn [26] in 1999 studied the defining numbers of regular graphs. Let $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ be the smallest value of $d(G, \chi)$ for each $r$-regular graph $G$ of order $n$ and chromatic number $k$. In Chapter 5, we prove that for a given integer $k$ and each $r \geq 2(k-1)$ and $n \geq 2 k, d(n, r, \chi=k)=k-1$. Thus, the answer to Question 2 in [26] is in the affirmative.

In Chapter 6, we find a new lower bound for the defining number of $r$-regular $k$-chromatic graphs with $k<r<2(k-1)$. We also determine the value of $d(n, r, \chi=k)$ for certain values of $n$ and $r$.

In Appendix A, we list the papers that were derived from this thesis.

## CHAPTER 2

## CHROMATIC CHARACTERIZATION OF $\mathcal{C}_{1}(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b} ; \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d})$

### 2.1 Chapter Outline

In this chapter, we first review known results on $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ which are useful in establishing our theorems. Then we consider the chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $r=1$ in Sections 2.3 and 2.4. The chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$, when $r \geq 2$, will be discussed in Chapter 3. Recall that

$$
\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)=\left\{G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d) \mid r=s+t, s \geq 0, t \geq 0\right\}
$$

It is clear that for $r=1$, the family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ contains only one graph $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$. Thus, the family $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if and only if $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatically unique graph. We shall discuss the chromatic uniqueness of $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$.

Peng in [33] proved that the graph $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is chromatically unique when $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \geq 4$. Also, in [32], it was shown that the graph $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is chromatically unique for certain values of $a, b, c$, and $d$. We study the chromatic uniqueness of $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ when $2 \leq \min \{a, b, c, d\} \leq 3$ in Sections 2.3 and 2.4. It is proved that $G_{1}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ with $\min \{a, b, c, d\}>1$ is a chromatically unique graph except the following five families of graphs: $G_{1}^{0}(3,5 ; 5,8), G_{1}^{0}(3, b ; b+$ $1, b+3)(b \geq 2), G_{1}^{0}(3, c+3 ; c, c+1)(c \geq 2), G_{1}^{0}(3,3 ; c, c+2)(c \geq 3)$, and $G_{1}^{0}(3, b ; 3, b+2)(b \geq 3)$.

### 2.2 Introduction and Known Results

Very often, to discover or establish new chromatically unique graphs or chromatic equivalence classes, some $\chi$-invariant properties are required. In the following theorem we list some well-known necessary conditions for chromatic equivalence.

Theorem 2.1 (Whitney [42]) Let $G$ and $H$ be chromatically equivalent graphs. Then
(a) $|V(G)|=|V(H)|$;
(b) $|E(G)|=|E(H)|$;
(c) $\chi(G)=\chi(H)$;
(d) $g(G)=g(H)$;
(e) $G$ and $H$ have the same number of shortest cycles.

It follows immediately from Theorem 2.1 that all cycles $C_{n}$ are chromatically unique. A chord of a cycle $C_{n}, n \geq 4$, is an edge joining a pair of nonadjacent vertices in $C_{n}$. A $\theta$-graph is a cycle with a chord. Chao and Whitehead [6] showed that every $\theta$-graph is chromatically unique. This result was extended by Loerinc [22]. A graph is called a generalized $\theta$-graph if it is obtained by connecting two distinct vertices by three internally disjoint paths. Such a graph is denoted by $\theta(a, b, c)$ if the lengths of the three paths are $a, b$, and $c$. Loerinc [22] proved that for any three positive integers $a, b, c$ such that $a \leq b \leq c$ and at most one of them is 1 , the generalized $\theta$-graph $\theta(a, b, c)$ is a chromatically unique graph.

Let $s \geq 2$. For any $s$ positive integers $k_{1} \leq k_{2} \leq \cdots \leq k_{s}$ with at most one $k_{j}=1$, let $\theta\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, \cdots, k_{s}\right)$ denote the graph obtained by connecting two distinct vertices
with $s$ internally disjoint paths of lengths $k_{1}, k_{2}, \cdots, k_{s}$, respectively. The graph $\theta\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, \cdots, k_{s}\right)$ is called a multi-bridge or more specifically $s$-bridge graph. Note that for $s=2,3$ the graphs are cycles and generalized $\theta$-graphs, respectively, and are known to be chromatically unique graphs.

Definition 2.1 A generalized polygon tree is a graph defined recursively as follows. Each cycle $C_{p}, p \geq 3$, is a generalized polygon tree. If $H$ is a generalized polygon tree containing a simple path $P_{k}, k \geq 1$, as a subgraph, then every $P_{k}$-gluing of $H$ and $C_{r}$, where $k \leq r$, is also a generalized polygon tree. Every generalized polygon tree is a graph obtained in this manner within a finite number of steps.

In the above definition, the value of $k$ may vary from step to step. If we require that $k=1$ in each step, then such a resulting generalized polygon tree is a polygon tree.

Xu [43] investigated the chromaticity of generalized polygon trees and introduced an interesting $\chi$-invariant for them. In [43], it was proved that every generalized polygon tree is a planar graph.

A pair $\{u, v\}$ of nonadjacent vertices of a graph $G$ is called an intercourse pair if there are at least three internally disjoint $(u, v)$-paths in $G$. let $c(G)$ denote the number of intercourse pairs of vertices in $G$. Xu [43] showed that the property of being a generalized polygon tree is preserved under ' $\sim$ ' and the quantity $c(G)$ of a generalized polygon tree $G$ is a $\chi$-invariant.

Theorem 2.2 (Xu [43]) If $G$ is a generalized polygon tree and $H \sim G$, then $H$ is also a generalized polygon tree and $c(H)=c(G)$.

By using the $\chi$-invariant $c(G), \mathrm{Xu}[43]$ also proved that the class of polygon trees is a chromatic equivalence class. This result was obtained earlier by Wakelin and Woodall [41]. Note that a $s$-bridge, $s \geq 3$, is a generalized polygon tree with one intercourse pair.

Consider the generalized polygon tree $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$ with two intercourse pairs shown in Figure 1.1. Recall that

$$
\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)=\left\{G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d) \mid r=s+t, s \geq 0, t \geq 0\right\}
$$

Here we present a survey of works done on chromaticity of the family of graphs $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$. For $r=0, \mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a 4-bridge and the chromaticity of this family was characterized in [44].

Theorem 2.3 (Xu et al. [44]) The graph $G_{0}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatically unique graph except $G_{0}^{0}(1, b ; c, d)$ and $G_{0}^{0}(2, b ; b+1, b+2)$.

Also, Xu et al. in [44] studied the chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for $r \geq 1$ and $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=1$. In $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$, without loss of generality, we can assume $\min \{a, b, c, d\}=a$.

Theorem 2.4 (Xu et al. [44]) The family of graphs

$$
\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{C}_{r}(1, b ; c, d) \cup \mathcal{C}_{c-1}(1, b ; r+1, d) \cup \mathcal{C}_{d-1}(1, b ; c, r+1)
$$

where $r \geq 1$ and $b, c, d \geq 2$, is a chromatic equivalence class except for $r=2$ and $b=d=c+1$. Moreover, for $r=2$ and $b=d=c+1$ the family of graphs
$\mathcal{C}_{0}(2, c ; c+1, c+2) \cup \mathcal{C}_{\mathbf{2}}(1, c+1 ; c, c+1) \cup \mathcal{C}_{c-1}(1, c+1 ; 3, c+1) \cup \mathcal{C}_{c}(1, c+1 ; c, 3)$
is a chromatic equivalence class.

Remark 2.1 In the family of graphs

$$
\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{C}_{r}(1, b ; c, d) \cup \mathcal{C}_{c-1}(1, b ; r+1, d) \cup \mathcal{C}_{d-1}(1, b ; c, r+1)
$$

if $c=d=r+1$, then $\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{C}_{r}(1, b ; r+1, r+1)$. Therefore by Theorem 2.4, $\mathcal{C}_{r}(1, b ; r+1, r+1)$ is a chromatic equivalence class. If $r=1$, then $G_{1}^{0}(1, b ; 2,2)$ is a chromatically unique graph (see [40]).

Teo and Koh [40], by considering $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ as a 2 -connected graph of order $n$ and size $n+2$ of girth 4 , proved that $\mathcal{C}_{r}(2,2 ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class for any integer $r \geq 1$. Chen and Ouyang [9], by considering 2-connected graphs of order $n$ and size $n+2$ of girth 5 , showed that $\mathcal{C}_{r}(2,3 ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if and only if $(c, d, r) \neq(k, k+2, k+1)$ or $(k+1, k+3, k-$ $1)$, for some $k \geq 2$. In [32], Peng studied the chromaticity of $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ for certain values of $a, b, c, d$, and $r$. Peng et al. [34] established that $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ is a chromatic equivalence class if $\min \{a, b, c, d\} \geq r+3$.

In [7], Chao and Zhao studied the chromatic polynomials of the family $\mathcal{F}$ of connected graphs with $k$ edges and $k-2$ vertices each of whose degree at least two where $k$ at least six. They first divided this family of graphs into three subfamilies $\mathcal{F}_{1}, \mathcal{F}_{2}$ and $\mathcal{F}_{3}$ according to their chromatic polynomials, and computed the chromatic polynomials for the graphs in each subfamily. Then they discussed the chromatic equivalence of graphs in $\mathcal{F}$. One of their results is Theorem 2.5. Note that the graph $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$ is in $\mathcal{F}_{2}$.

Theorem 2.5 (Chao and Zhao [7] and Peng et al. [34]) All the graphs in $\mathcal{C}_{r}(a, b ; c, d)$ are chromatically equivalent.

By Theorem 2.5, we only need to compute $P\left(G_{r}^{0}(a, b ; c, d)\right)$ for computing the chromatic polynomial of $G_{t}^{s}(a, b ; c, d)$.

